ECE608 CHAPTER 8 PROBLEMS

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(1) CLR 8.1-3

If the sort runs in linear time for \( m \) input permutations, then the height \( h \) of those paths of the decision tree consisting of the \( m \) corresponding leaves and their ancestors must be linear. Hence, we can use the same argument as in the proof of Theorem 8.1 to show that this is impossible for \( m = \frac{n!}{2}, \frac{n!}{n}, \) or \( \frac{n!}{2^n} \). We have \( 2^h \geq m \), which gives \( h \geq \lg m \), and so for all possible \( m \)'s given here, \( \lg m = \Omega(n \lg n) \), so \( h = \Omega(n \lg n) \). In particular,

(i) \( \lg\left(\frac{n!}{2}\right) = \lg(n!) - 1 \geq (n \lg n - n \lg e) - 1 \)

(ii) \( \lg\left(\frac{n!}{n}\right) = \lg(n!) - \lg n \geq (n \lg n - n \lg e) - \lg n \)

(iii) \( \lg\left(\frac{n!}{2^n}\right) = \lg(n!) - n \geq (n \lg n - n \lg e) - n \)

(2) CLR 8.2-4

For the preprocessing step, compute the \( C \) array as in lines 1 through 7 of Counting-Sort. Then for any query \( \text{NUM-IN-RANGE}(a, b) \), we simply return \( C[b] - C[a - 1] \), where \( C[0] = 0 \). The query requires \( O(1) \) time to answer.

(3) CLR 8.3-1
Basis: If $d = 1$, there is only one digit, so sorting on that digit sorts the array.

Inductive step: Assuming that RADIX-SORT works for $d - 1$ digits, we will show that it works for $d$ digits.

RADIX-SORT sorts separately on each digit, starting from digit 1. Thus RADIX-SORT of $d$ digits, which sort on digits 1, ..., $d$ is equivalent to RADIX-SORT of the low-order $d - 1$ digits followed by a sort on digit $d$. By our induction hypothesis, the sort of the low-order $d - 1$ digits works, so just before the sort on digit $d$, the elements are in order according to their low-order $d - 1$ digits.

The sort on digit $d$ will order the elements by their $d$th digit. Consider two elements, $a$ and $b$, with $d$th digits $a_d$ and $b_d$ respectively.
• If \( a_d < b_d \), the sort will put \( a \) before \( b \), which is correct, since \( a < b \) regardless of the low-order digits.

• If \( a_d > b_d \), the sort will put \( a \) after \( b \), which is correct, since \( a > b \) regardless of the low-order digits.

• If \( a_d = b_d \), the sort will leave \( a \) and \( b \) in the same order they were in, because it is stable. But that order is already correct, since the correct order of \( a \) and \( b \) is determined by the low-order \( d - 1 \) digits when their \( d \)th digits are equal, and the elements are already sorted by their low-order \( d - 1 \) digits.

If the intermediate sort were not stable, it might rearrange elements whose \( d \)th digits were equal — elements that were in the right order after the sort on their lower-order digits.

(5) CLR 8.3-4 (note: Same argument can be used with \( d = 3 \) instead of \( d = 2 \))

With \( n \) input elements having values between 0 and \( n^2 - 1 \), we represent the numbers with a two-digit place notation using \( n \) as the base(radix). For example, when \( n = 1000 \), 0 is represented as (000, 000), 999,999 is represented as (999, 999), and 623 is represented as (000, 623), 999 is represented as (000, 999), 1,000 is represented as (001, 000), etc. Then, by using RADIX-SORT to sort the above inputs with \( d = 2 \) and \( k = n \), the running time is \( \Theta(dn + dk) = \Theta(2n + 2k) = \Theta(2n + 2n) = \Theta(n) \).

(6) CLR 8.4-2

The worst case occurs when every element falls into the same bucket. When this occurs, INSERTION-SORT in the worst case takes \( \Theta(n^2) \). So the worst case running time is determined by the worst case running time of the sorting algorithm used. If we use MERGE-SORT instead of INSERTION-SORT, then the worst case running time is \( \Theta(n \lg n) \), while we still preserve the linear expected running time because \( E[n_i \lg n_i] \leq E[n_i^2] = \Theta(1) \).
(a) The first thing to note is that numbers with fewer digits are smaller than numbers with more digits. So the numbers first need to be sorted on the basis of how many digits they have. Say that the maximum number of digits any number has is $D$. Then we first sort the numbers into $D$ sub-arrays, such that the first sub-array consists of all numbers with one digit, the second one with two digits ... and so on. The procedure SORT-BY-DIGITS given below performs this task in $O(n)$.

SORT-BY-DIGITS (A, B, C, D)
1. for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $D$
2. do $C[i] \leftarrow 0$
3. for $j \leftarrow 1$ to $\text{length}[A]$
4. do $C[\text{digits}[A[j]]] \leftarrow C[\text{digits}[A[j]]] + 1$
5. for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $D$
6. do $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i - 1]$
7. Save a copy of the $C$ array in $O(D)$ time
8. for $j \leftarrow \text{length}[A]$ downto 1

SORT-BY-DIGITS takes $O(n)$ because each of the for loops either iterates $n$ times or $D$ times and even if each number has 1 digit $D$ is less than $n$. We assume that the contents of the array $C$ were saved before the for-loop of line 8-9, this is acceptable as it will take $O(D)$ time. Once this is done, we can run radix sort on each of the subarrays. There are $D$ subarrays, let $n_k$ denote the number of elements in the $k$’th subarray and $k$ be the number of digits of each elements in the $k$’th sub-array. The following procedure sorts all sub-arrays in $O(n)$ time.

SORT-SUBARRAYS (A, B, C, D)
1. for $k0$ to $D - 1$
2. RADIX-SORT( $B[C[k]..C[k+1]], k + 1$ )

Each invocation of RADIX-SORT takes $O(n_k k)$ time, as there are $n_k$ numbers in the $k$’th subarray and each has $k$ digits. The total running time is given as:

$$T(n) = \sum_{k=1}^{D} n_k k$$

Because the sum of all $n_k$ products is the number of digits in the entire array, we have:

$$T(n) = O(n)$$

(b) We are given a stream of $n$ characters, that makes up upto $n$ strings. The strings are to be sorted in alphabetic order, and a short string of $k$ characters is to be ordered before a longer string that has the same first $k$ characters.

We use a counting sort to sort the words based on their first letter. Then, for each initial letter, we recursively sort the words with that first letter using the sort algorithm we are designing here, but with the first letter of each word removed. If any one of these entries is just one letter long then we do not include it in the recursion but place it at the beginning of the results (when the recursion returns, place the first letter back on the front of each word). The base case of the recursion is when the set of words to sort is empty.

Analysis: Each counting sort call is $O(k + 26) = O(k)$ when $k$ words are sorted. Let $T(n)$ be the worst-case cost for sorting total length $n$. For each letter $a$, let $n_a$ be the total length of the words starting with letter $a$, and $c_a$ be the number of words starting with $a$. The sort requires a recursive call of cost $T(n_a - c_a)$. Also, there is a divide and recombine cost for each subproblem of size $O(c_a)$. Also, there is a counting sort call at cost $O(Sum_a c_a)$. These last two kinds of cost can be combined as one charge or $O(Sum_a c_a)$.

The recurrence for the sort is thus $T(n) = Sum_a T(n_a - c_a) + k(Sum_a c_a)$, for some $k$. 
Here, we know that $\text{Sum}_a n_a + c_a = n$, because every letter is either the first letter of a distinct word or one of the remaining letters passed on, and $\text{Sum}_a c_a \geq 1$, because there is at least one word. We show by substitution that $T(n)$ is $\leq dn$ for some constant $d$, for all $n \geq 1$.

In the base case, $n=1$, and the cost is $k(1)$, so we can take $d \geq k$.

In the recursive case, we have $T(n) \leq \text{Sum}_a d(n_a - c_a) + k(\text{Sum}_a c_a) \leq \text{Sum}_a d(n_a)$ [using $d \geq k$] $\leq dn$, as desired.

(8) CLR 8-6

(a) There are $2n$ elements in total. We select $n$ elements from the total to obtain one of the arrays, and the remaining elements must automatically belong to the second array. So the number of choices is the same as if we were selecting $n$ items from $2n$ items. And this is exactly $\binom{2n}{n}$.

(b) Lets call the two arrays $a$ and $b$. And name the elements of the array $a_1; a_2; \ldots$ and $b_1; b_2; \ldots$. The decision tree for merging of the two arrays $a$ and $b$ will be as follows, note that once all elements from any array have been exhausted no further comparisons are required:

\[(a_1 b_1)\]
\[(a_2 b_1)(a_1 b_2)\]
\[(a_3 b_1)(a_2 b_2)(a_2 b_2)(a_1 b_3)\]
\[\vdots\]
\[(a_n b_1)(a_{n-1} b_2) \ldots (a_{n-k} b_k) \ldots (a_1 b_n)\]
\[\vdots (a_{n-1} b_{n-1}) \ldots\]
\[\vdots (a_n b_{n-1})(a_{n-1} b_n) \ldots\]
\[\vdots (a_n b_n)(a_n b_n) \ldots\]
We see that the left-most and right-most ends of the tree have only depth of \( n \) comparisons as they continuously use up elements from only one array. Subtrees down the middle tend to use elements from both arrays and so are deeper. The deepest path results when one element is taken from either array in strict alternation and it results in the last leaf being \( 2n \) deep from the root. Every time two elements get consecutively chosen from the same array, the depth of the tree along that path reduces by 1. Thus the number of comparisons can be expressed as \( 2n - (\text{number of times elements do not get taken from alternating arrays}) \). Because each array has \( n \) elements, the number of times you can consecutively take from the same array is bounded by \( n \). So the total number of comparisons is \( 2n - O(n) \).

(c) Imagine three elements in the final merged list \( C \), lets call them \( c_i, c_{i+1} \) and \( c_{i+2} \). Let’s say that \( c_i \) is \( a_j \) i.e., the \( j^{th} \) element from the array \( A \). And similarly \( c_{i+1} \) is \( b_k \). When \( c_i \) was chosen from \( A \) and \( B \) to be placed as the next element in the merging of \( C \), it was compared to the current head of the array \( B \) and found to be smaller. This current head of \( B \) must have been \( b_k \). To prove by contradiction lets say the current head was \( b_{<k} \), then in the final merged list \( C \), at least one element from \( B \) must have come between \( a_j \) and \( b_k \) which contradicts our assumption that they are consecutive. Similarly if the current head of \( B \) was \( b_{>k} \), then \( c_{i+1} \) could only be some other element from \( B \), while \( b_k \) itself must have already been added to \( C \) at some earlier step and so it contradicts the assumption that \( c_{i+1} \) is \( b_k \). Therefore the current head of \( B \) must have been \( b_k \) when \( a_j \) was added to \( C \) and hence they must have been compared.

(d) We note that every time two consecutive elements in \( C \) do not belong to the same array, they must have been compared against each other. So the maximum number of comparison are obtained when \( C \) strictly alternates between elements from \( A \) and \( B \). This would result in a comparison at every element merging except for the last one (when the other array has gone empty and there is nothing to compare). Thus the worst case number of comparisons would be \( 2n - 1 \).